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Prostate Cancer and its Vascular Endothelium

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## Table of Contents

Cover.....	1
SF 298.....	2
Table of Contents.....	3
Introduction.....	4
Body.....	4
Key Research Accomplishments.....	4
Reportable Outcomes.....	12
Conclusions.....	12
References.....	12
Appendices.....	13

## **1. Introduction:**

We have proposed that Akt/mTOR signaling mediates cell survival and contributes to radioresistance. We intend to investigate the cellular and molecular mechanism by which inhibition of Akt/mTOR or overexpression of PTEN in both prostate cancer and its vasculature results in radiosensitization. In addition, we propose to determine possible association between level or activity of these molecules and clinical response to radiotherapy.

## **2. Body:**

To accomplish the proposed studies: we have the following Statement of Work for the first 12 months:

Task 1. To determine whether Akt and mTOR contribute to radiation resistance in prostate cancer and its vascular endothelium (Months 1-12):

- a. Determine whether Akt is required for the survival phenotype in irradiated prostate cancer and its vascular endothelium, via adenoviral transfer of dominant-negative Akt (Months 1-4): Our preliminary results showed Akt results in increased cell survival.
- b. Determine whether irradiation activates mTOR signaling pathway in prostate cancer cells or endothelial cells, by Western analyses (Months 5-8): We found that irradiation activates mTOR signaling in HUVEC cells, which is mediated by PI3 kinase pathway. (Please see reference 1)
- c. Determine whether inhibition of mTOR by Rapamycin enhances radiotherapy in prostate cancer cells or endothelial cells, by regulating cell survival or apoptosis (Months 9-12): We have found mTOR inhibitors such as Rapamycin and Rad001 increased apoptosis induced by irradiation in HUVEC cells. (Please see reference 1).

In addition, we have collected 100 tissue samples of prostate cancer and have established a corresponding database, which will be expanded to 500 patients in the next 12-24 months. Preliminary analyses of several genetic polymorphisms have established the feasibility of Task 4 (Please see reference 2-4).

We have also tested several novel therapeutic agents for their antiangiogenic property, which may be tested in the prostate cancer for their ability to downregulate the Akt/mTOR signaling (Please see reference 5-7).

## **3. Key Research Accomplishments:**

**mTOR inhibitors, rapamycin and Rad001, sensitize endothelial cells to radiation by decreasing cell survival:**

To determine whether inhibition of mTOR sensitizes HUVEC cells to radiotherapy, clonogenic assays were performed. HUVEC cells were treated with either 100 nM of Rapamycin, 5 nM of Rad001 or a DMSO control and incubated for one hour. This was followed with escalating radiation doses from 0-7 Gy. The Rapamycin or DMSO was washed off after irradiation. After 2 weeks, colonies were stained and the scored colonies were graphed. Cells treated with rapamycin or Rad001 alone had reduced plating efficiency. Interestingly, rapamycin and Rad001 significantly lowered the survival curve of irradiated HUVEC cells as shown in Figure 1.

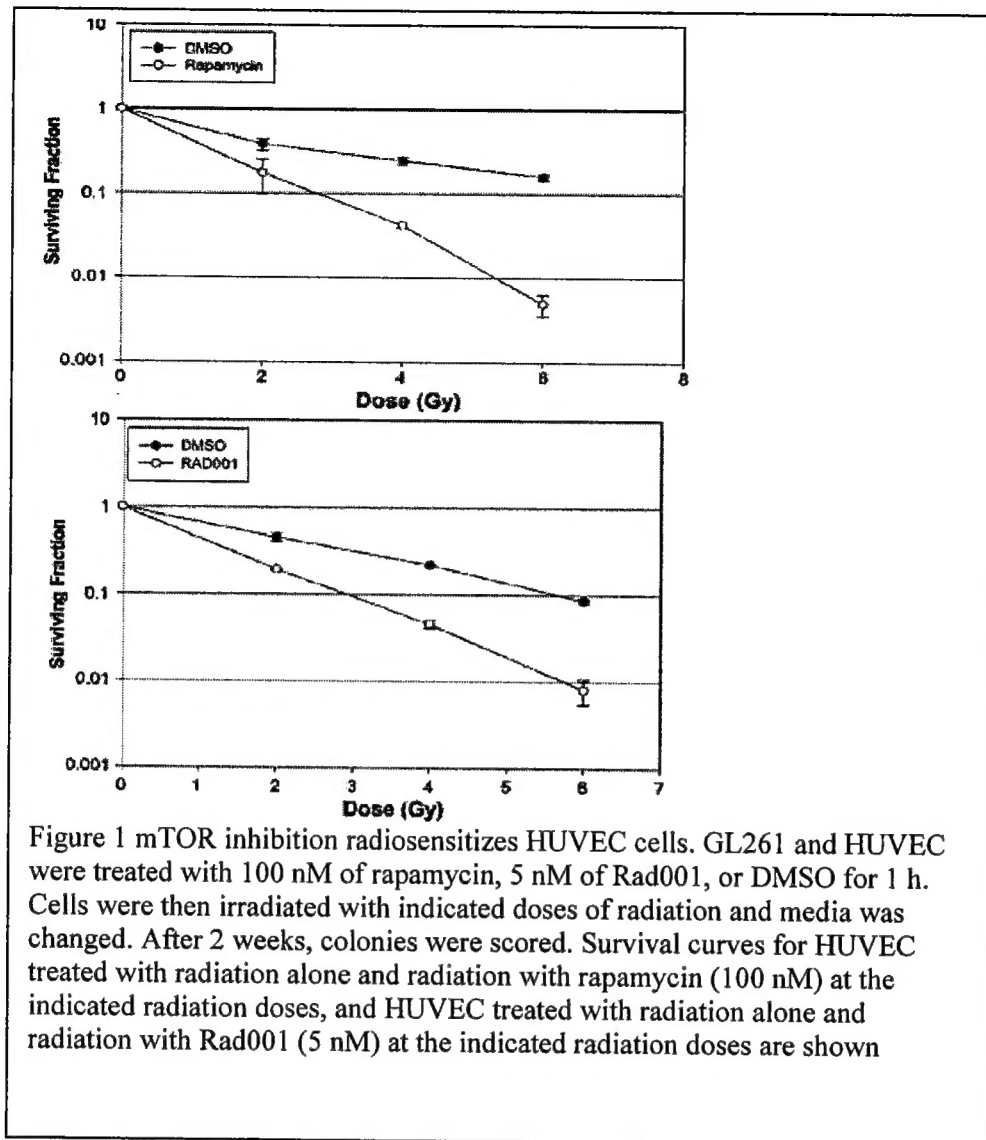


Figure 1 mTOR inhibition radiosensitizes HUVEC cells. GL261 and HUVEC were treated with 100 nM of rapamycin, 5 nM of Rad001, or DMSO for 1 h. Cells were then irradiated with indicated doses of radiation and media was changed. After 2 weeks, colonies were scored. Survival curves for HUVEC treated with radiation alone and radiation with rapamycin (100 nM) at the indicated radiation doses, and HUVEC treated with radiation alone and radiation with Rad001 (5 nM) at the indicated radiation doses are shown

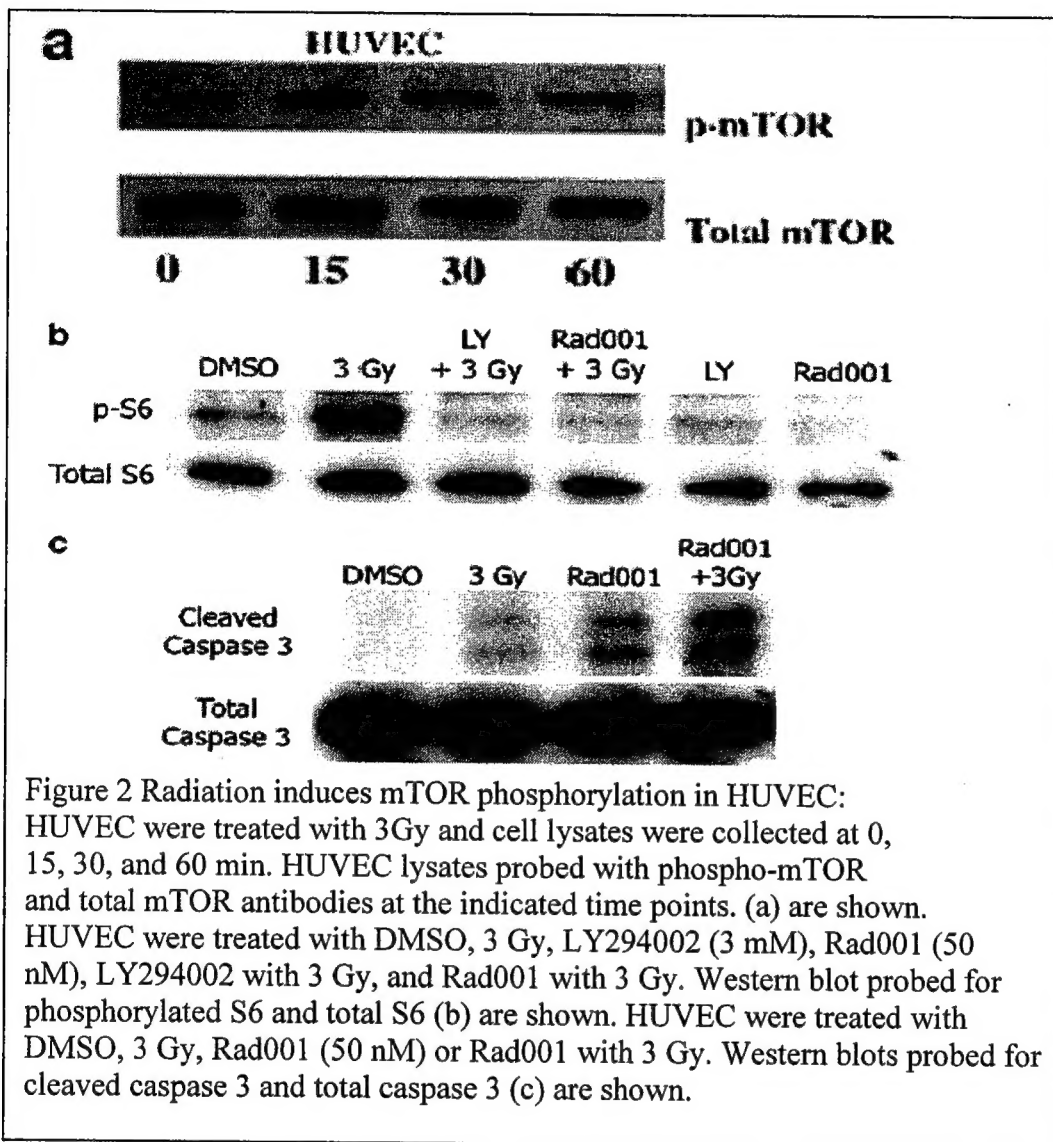
### **Irradiation induces mTOR signaling in endothelial cells:**

In order to determine whether irradiation activates the mTOR signaling pathway in endothelial cells, HUVEC cells were irradiated with 3 Gy and phosphorylated mTOR protein levels were measured by Western immunoblots which were probed for with p-mTOR antibody at the indicated time points. As shown in Figure 2A, phosphorylated mTOR was increased at 15 minutes following treatment with 3 Gy in HUVEC. The increase in phospho-mTOR persisted at one hour after irradiation, without detectable change of total mTOR protein during these time points. In order to establish whether activation of mTOR signaling was mediated by PI3 kinase, the downstream marker of mTOR signaling, phospho-S6 was determined. HUVEC cells were treated with LY294002 (3  $\mu$ M), a known PI3K inhibitor or Rad001 (50 nM). 30 minutes after treatment with either inhibitor, cells were treated with 3 Gy of radiation. Cell lysates were then collected and analyzed by gel electrophoresis, using antibody for phospho-S6 and total S6 protein. As shown in Figure 2B, HUVEC treated with 3 Gy showed increased levels of S6 phosphorylation. Cells treated with LY294002 or Rad001 alone showed very little S6 phosphorylation either with or without irradiation, similar to non-irradiated HUVEC.

### **mTOR inhibition induces apoptosis in HUVEC:**

To determine whether mTOR inhibition induces apoptosis in HUVEC we used western analysis to probe for cleaved caspase 3. HUVEC were treated with vehicle (DMSO), 3 Gy, Rad001 (50 nM) and Rad001 with 3 Gy. Cells were treated with Rad001 one hour prior to radiation and proteins were collected 6 hours later. Cleaved caspase 3 and total caspase 3 were probed for as

shown in Figure 2C. DMSO alone showed no induction of caspase 3 cleavage, whereas there was minor induction of caspase 3 cleavage in cells treated with 3 Gy or Rad001 alone. However, combined therapy with Rad001 and 3 Gy resulted in the greatest increase in Caspase 3 cleavage when compared with the other groups. Total caspase 3 showed no change in all groups.



#### Rapamycin sensitizes vascular endothelium to radiation injury:

Since rapamycin reduced the survival of HUVEC cells, we studied rapamycin effects on tumor angiogenesis. HUVEC cells were treated with either 100 nM rapamycin or DMSO for one hour. Cells were then irradiated with 0 or 3Gy. Rapamycin and DMSO were washed off after irradiation. The endothelial cell morphogenesis assay was performed to examine the ability of the treated HUVECs to produce tubular structures *in vitro*. As shown in Figure 3, HUVEC cells that were treated with both rapamycin and 3 Gy formed 3-4 fold less tubular structures, in contrast to the DMSO group. The groups treated with radiotherapy or rapamycin alone had nearly a one fold reduction of tubular structure.

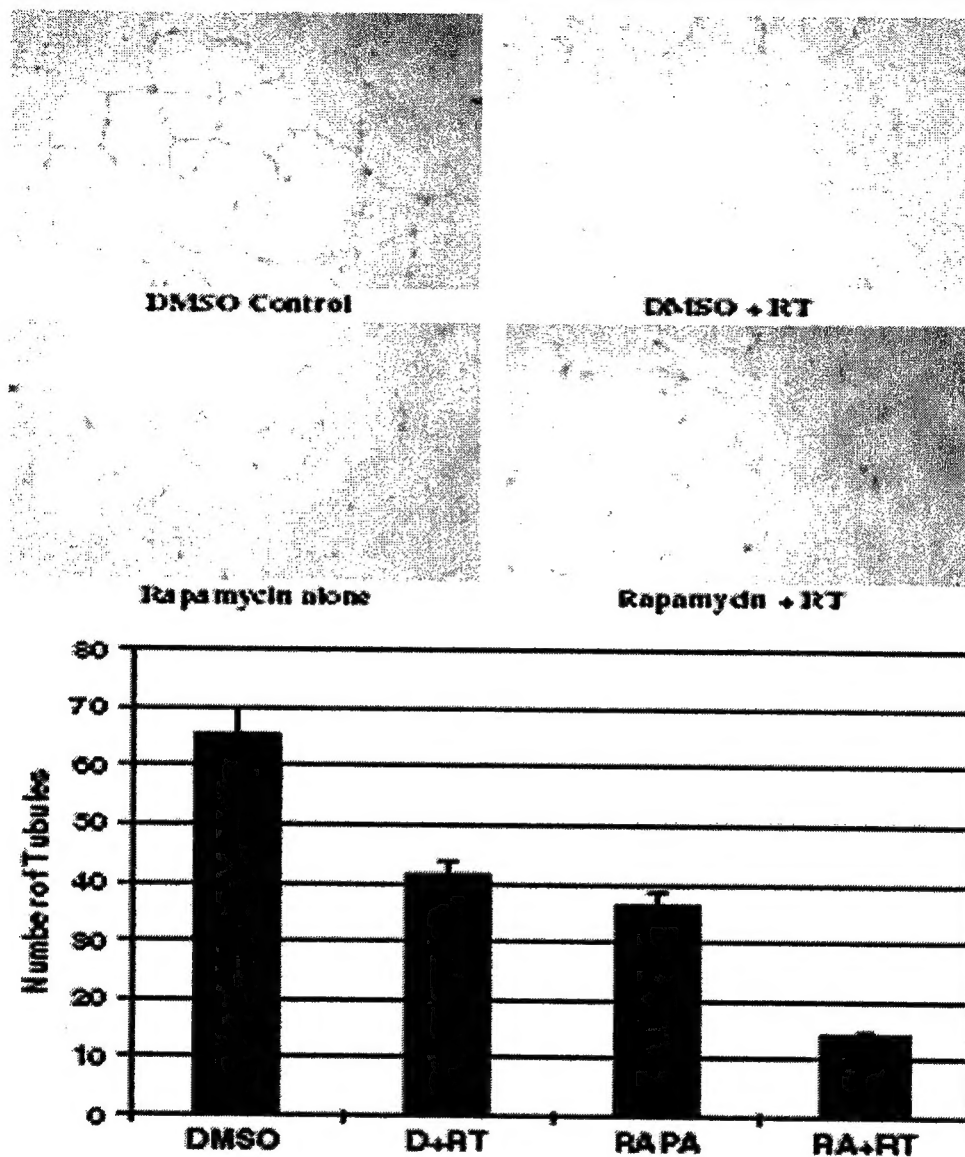
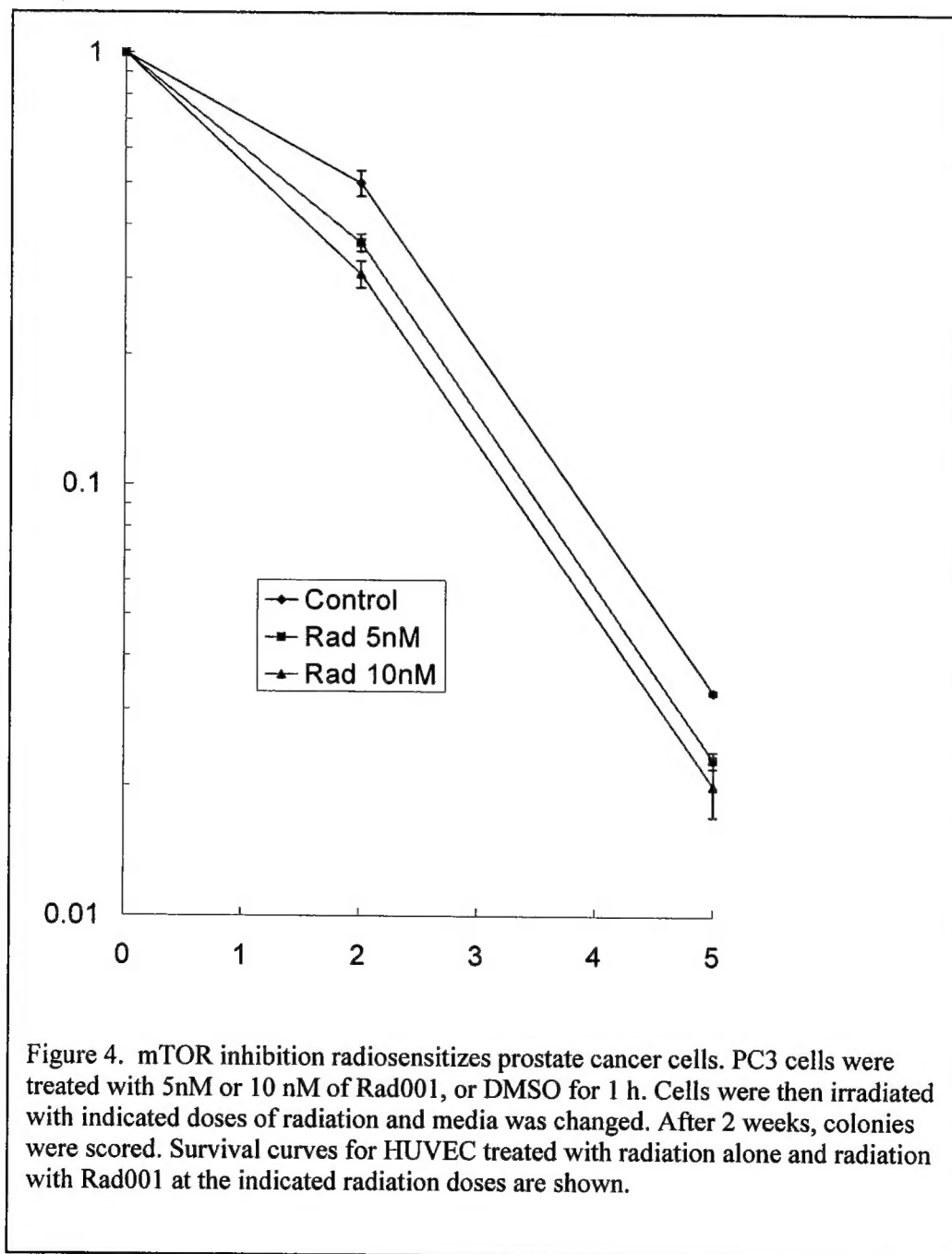


Figure 3 Rapamycin sensitizes vascular endothelium to radiation injury: HUVEC ( $4.8 \times 10^4$  cells) were treated with rapamycin (100 nM), radiation, or both. They were then resuspended and plated on 24-well plates coated with Matrigel. After 24 h, the media were gently aspirated and the cells were fixed and stained. The slides were examined for tube formation by microscopy. Representative figures and quantification of tubular structures are shown. Data are shown as the mean  $\pm$  s.d. DMSO-treated HUVEC had an average of 65 tubes per high powered field (s.d.  $\pm$  4.97), HUVEC treated with DMSO and 3Gy had 41.5 tubes (s.d.  $\pm$  2.65), HUVEC treated with rapamycin alone had 36.5 (s.d.  $\pm$  2.38), and HUVEC treated with rapamycin and 3Gy had 14.25 (s.d.  $\pm$  0.96)

### Rad001, selectively sensitize prostate cancer cells to radiation by decreasing cell survival:

To determine whether inhibition of mTOR sensitizes HUVEC cells to radiotherapy, clonogenic assays were performed. PC3 prostate cancer cells were treated with either 5nM or 10nM of Rad001 or a DMSO control and incubated for one hour. This was followed with escalating radiation doses from 0-5 Gy. The Rapamycin or DMSO was washed off after irradiation. After 2 weeks, colonies were stained and the scored colonies were graphed. Cells treated with Rad001 alone had reduced plating efficiency. Interestingly, Rad001 significantly lowered the survival curve of irradiated PC3 cells as shown in Figure 4.





### Establishing clinical database:

We found 98 Caucasian patients with prostate cancer who underwent prostatectomy at Vanderbilt Hospital in 1997. The study was approved by Institutional Review Board (IRB# 030986) at Vanderbilt University School of Medicine. All patients had clinically localized prostate cancer and were treated with radical prostatectomy as a primary treatment. All patients had adenocarcinoma confirmed histologically. The patients were followed at Vanderbilt Hospital or at local hospitals with a mean follow-up of 62 months. Patients' age ranged 40 to 81 with a median age of 63 years. All pathological information was reviewed by one pathologist and the tumor differentiation was evaluated using Gleason's score criteria. Clinical stage was classified according to the AJCC TNM staging system. The Clinical and histological characteristics of the patients are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1 Associations of endostatin polymorphisms with other clinical and pathological parameters			
Factors	4349 polymorphism		P value
	4349G/G(104D/D) n(%)	4349G/A(104D/N) n(%)	
Age (y)			
≤60	30(88.24)	4(11.76)	0.6886
60-70	42(80.77)	10(19.23)	
>70	10(83.33)	2(16.67)	
PSA			
≤4	12(70.59)	5(29.41)	0.2791
4-10	45(86.54)	7(13.46)	
>10	25(86.21)	4(13.79)	
Gleason grade			
≤6	54(87.10)	8(12.90)	0.2640
>6	28(77.78)	8(22.22)	
Clinical stage			
I	7(77.78)	2(22.22)	0.7479
II	57(85.07)	10(14.93)	
III	18(81.82)	4(18.18)	

### Tissue preparation and DNA extraction

Using a standard microtome with disposable blades, 5µm thickness sections of a representative areas of normal prostatic glands were cut from the paraffin embedded blocks and stained with Hematoxylin and eosin(H&E) and then examined under a microscope to verify the absence of prostate cancer. 5µm thickness section (about 1µg) from each patient was used for DNA extraction. The sections were deparaffinized with xylene at room temperature for 30minutes twice. Then the deparaffinized tissue was washed with 100% ethanol twice. After the ethanol had evaporated completely, the tissue was completely lysed with proteinase K. Then QIAamp DNA Mini Kit(QIAGEN Inc, Valencia, CA) was used to extract and purify DNA from the tissues according to the tissue protocol of the kit.

### Polymorphism Genotyping

The allelic discrimination of the *E-cadherin* gene -160 C→A and -347 G→GA polymorphisms were assessed with the ABI PRISM 7900HT Sequence Detection System(Applied Biosystems). PCR was performed with a total volume of 5µl, which contained approximately 2.5ng DNA, 1×Taqman Universal PCR Master Mix, each primer at a concentration of 900nM, and each probe at a concentration of 200nM. Taqman probes for -160 polymorphism were: A allele specific: 5'-VIC- CTA GCA ACT CCA GGC TAG AGG GTC AAC GCG TCT ATG CGA GGC CGG GTG GGC -NFQ-3'; C-allele specific: 5'-FAM- CTA GCA ACT CCA GGC TAG

AGG GTC ACC GCG TCT ATG CGA GGC CGG GTG GGC -NFQ-3'. Primers of -160 polymorphism were obtained from Applied Biosystems (Assay ID: C\_11934298\_10). Taqman probes for -347 polymorphism were: G allele specific: 5'-FAM- AAA GAG TGA GCC CCA TC-NFQ-3'; A-allele specific: 5'-VIC- AAA GAG TGA GAC CCC ATC-NFQ-3'. Forward primer for -347 polymorphism sequence was: 5'-CAC CAC TGC ACT CCA GCT T-3' and reverse primer sequence was: 5'-GCT GAG TTC TTT TGT TTT GGG ATT T-3'. The thermal cycling conditions were as follows: 95°C for 10min to activate the AmpliTaq Gold enzyme, followed by 40 cycles of 15 seconds at 95°C and 60 seconds at 60°C. The fluorescence levels were measured with an ABI PRISM 7900HT Sequence Detector(Applied Biosystems), resulting in clear identification of three genotypes of each polymorphism.

The laboratory staff was blind to the identity of the subjects. Quality control(QC) samples were included in the genotyping assays. Each 384 well plate contained four water, eight CEPH 1347-02 DNA, eight blinded QC samples, and eight unblinded QC samples. The blinded and unblinded QC samples were taken from the second tube of study samples included in this study.

### **E-cadherin polymorphisms genotyping**

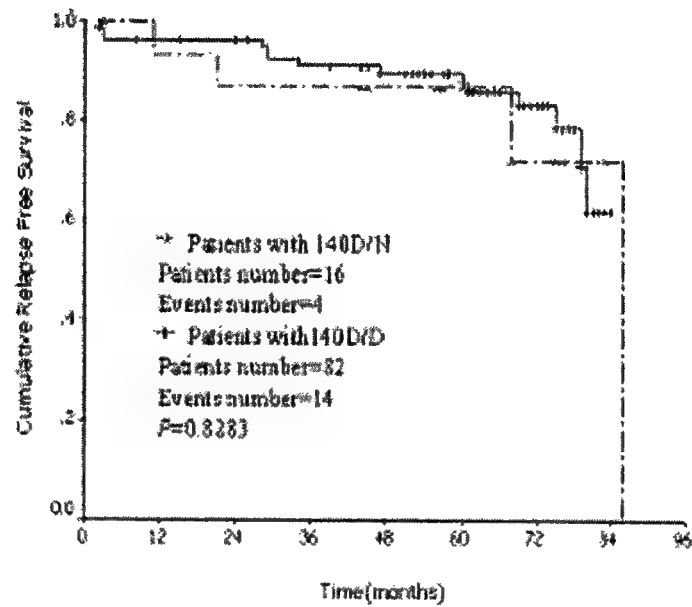
With Taqman single nucleotide polymorphism(SNP) genotyping assay, *E-cadherin* polymorphism genotypes of DNA from the 98 tissues were successfully detected with a quality control agreement rate of 100%. The frequencies of *E-cadherin* -160 polymorphism genotypes were 47.96%(47/98) for -160C/C, 43.88%(43/98) for -160C/A, and 8.16%(8/98) for -160A/A. *E-cadherin* -347 polymorphism genotypes were G/G:68.37%(67/98), -347G/GA: 27.55%(27/98) and -347GA/GA: 4.08%(4/98) respectively. The distribution of the genotypes of the -160C/A and -347G/GA polymorphism in this group of patients did not differ significantly from those predicted by the Hardy-Weinberg distribution (for -160C→A:  $X^2=0.398$ ,  $P=0.5281$ , for -347G→GA:  $X^2=0.363$ ,  $P=0.5468$ ).

### **The association of E-cadherin polymorphisms with other clinical and pathological parameters**

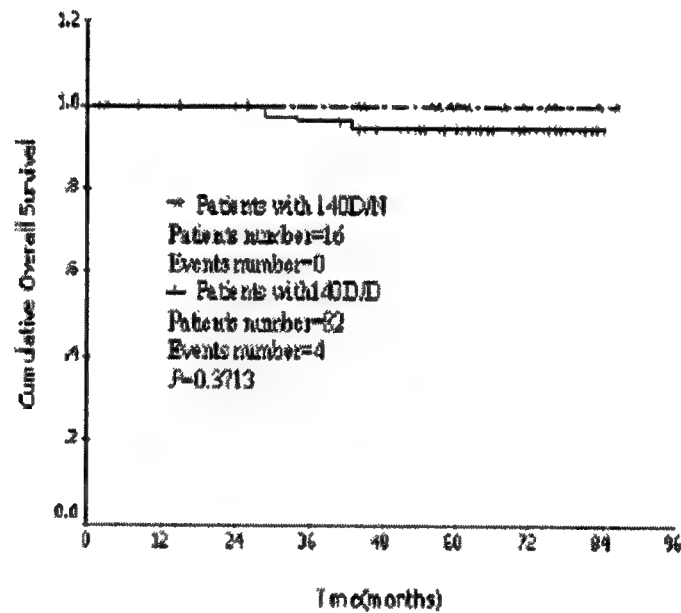
Using the Chi-square test, we found that *E-cadherin* -160 polymorphism genotype had no association with patients' age, prostate-specific antigen(PSA) level, Gleason grade and clinical stage ( $p>0.05$ , see Table 1); Chi-square analysis of the -340 polymorphism genotypes also showed no association with these variables ( $p>0.05$ , see Table 1). In combination analysis(Patients were divided into two subgroups: those with -160C/C and -347G/G and those with other genotypes), there was no significant association between -160C/-347G homozygosities (with both -160C/C and -347G/G) and patients' age, PSA level, Gleason grade and clinical stage either ( $p>0.05$ ) (Table1).

### **Survival analysis**

The Kaplan-Meier method was used to compute survival rates and the log-rank test was applied to test the difference in survival across different genotypes. 5-year relapse free survival(RFS) rates and overall survival(OS) rates for this group of patients were 87.71% and 95.64% respectively. There was no significant difference between subjects with -160C/C and those with other genotypes(-160A/A or -160C/A) in RFS and OS (Log-rank test,  $P=0.0764$  and  $0.2746$  respectively) (Figure1A,B); there was no significant difference between subjects with -347G/G and those with other genotypes(-347GA/GA or -347GA/A) in RFS and OS (Log-rank test,  $P=0.9416$  and  $0.7367$  respectively) (Figure1C,D). In the combination analysis, the difference in RFS or OS between patients with -160C/-347G homozygosities(both -160C/C and -347G/G) and those with other genotypes was not significant either(Log-rank test,  $P=0.1418$  and  $0.2434$  respectively) (Figure1E,F)



(A)



(B)

Fig. 1. Relapse free survival and overall survival curves. (A) RFS curves for patients with 4349G/G(140D/D) genotype and those with 4349G/A(140D/N); (B) OS curves for patients with 4349G/G(140D/D) genotype and those with 4349G/G(140D/N).

#### 4. Reportable outcomes:

1. Eric Shinohara, Kenneth Niermann, Carolyn Cao, Fenghua Zeng, Dennis E. Hallahan, and Bo Lu. mTOR inhibitors as a potential anti-angiogenesis agent enhanced efficacy of radiotherapy. 2005 May 23; [Epub ahead of print]
2. Li HC, Eric Shinohara and Bo Lu. Endostatin polymorphism 4349G/A(D104N) is not Associated with Aggressiveness of Disease in Prostate Cancer *Dis Markers* Volume 21, Number 1, 2005
3. Li HC, Eric T Shinohara and Bo Lu Plasminogen activator inhibitor-1(PAI-1) promoter polymorphism is not associated with prognosis in prostate cancer (accepted, *Clinical Oncology*).
4. Tissue collection and database of prostate cancer.

**5. Conclusions:** We have found that irradiation activates Akt/mTOR signaling and combination of radiation and mTOR inhibitors enhances anti-angiogenic effects of irradiation. We will investigate the interaction of Akt, Pten and mTOR and its relevance in the targeted therapeutics of prostate cancer.

#### 6. References:

1. Eric Shinohara , Kenneth Niermann, Carolyn Cao, Fenghua Zeng, Dennis E. Hallahan, and Bo Lu. mTOR inhibitors as a potential anti-angiogenesis agent enhanced efficacy of radiotherapy. *Oncogene* 2005 24: 5414-5422
2. Li HC, Eric Shinohara and Bo Lu. Endostatin polymorphism 4349G/A(D104N) is not Associated with Aggressiveness of Disease in Prostate Cancer *Dis Markers* Volume 21, Number 1, 2005
3. Li HC, Eric T. Shinohara and Bo Lu. E-cadherin promoter polymorphisms are not associated with the aggressiveness of prostate cancer in Caucasian patients. (submitted to *Int J Cancer*).
4. Li HC, Eric T Shinohara and Bo Lu Plasminogen activator inhibitor-1(PAI-1) promoter polymorphism is not associated with prognosis in prostate cancer (accepted, *Clinical Oncology*).
5. Carolyn Cao, Mu Yi, Dennis E. Hallahan, Bo Lu. Radiation sensitization of lung cancer through inhibition of survivin and XIAP. *Oncogene*. 2004 Sep 16;23(42):7047-52.
6. Carolyn Cao, Eric Shinohara, Kenneth Niermann, Dennis Hallahan, and Bo Lu. MDM2 as a radiosensitizing target for lung cancer and its vasculature. *Mol Cancer Ther* 2005 4: 1137-1145.
7. Carolyn Cao, Kenneth Niermann and Bo Lu. Radiation sensitization of lung cancer and its angiogenesis through inhibition of Clusterin (in print, *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*).

# Endostatin polymorphism 4349G/A(D104N) is not associated with aggressiveness of disease in prostate cancer<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>b</sup>Department of Medicine and Vanderbilt-Ingram Cancer Center, Vanderbilt University School of Medicine, Nashville, TN 37232, USA

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**Abstract.** Endostatin is an important inhibitory molecule which mediates the sequential steps involved in angiogenesis. Lower level or impaired function of endostatin is associated with a higher risk of developing malignant solid tumors and with a worse prognosis of the disease. The *endostatin* N104 polymorphism might be associated with an impaired ability to inhibit angiogenesis. We analyzed the tissues from 98 Caucasian prostate cancer patients for the presence of D104N polymorphism. The frequencies of homozygous 4349G/G(104D/D), and heterozygous 4349G/A(104D/N) were 83.67%(82/98) and 16.33%(16/98), respectively; no individuals were homozygous 4349A/A(104N/N). With the Fisher's exact test we found the genotype of D104N was not significantly related to age, tumor grade, PSA and clinical stage ( $P > 0.05$ ). There was no difference in relapse free survival(RFS) or overall survival(OS) between patients with 104D/N and those with 104D/D ( $P = 0.8283, 0.3713$  respectively). We concluded that *endostatin* polymorphism was not associated with the aggressiveness of prostate cancer in Caucasian patients.

**Keywords:** Prostate cancer, endostatin, polymorphism

## 1. Introduction

The latest estimates of global cancer incidence show that prostate cancer has become the third most common cancer in men, with half a million new cases each year, almost 10% of all cancers in male [1–4]. Prostate cancer is usually regarded as a slow-growing tumor, and only 2.9% actually will die of the disease [5]. In order to

better design therapeutic strategies for individual cases and identifying patients who would benefit from more vigilant surveillance, it would be of interest to study markers which can predict the outcome of disease. Angiogenesis, or the formation of new blood vessels from preexisting endothelium, is a fundamental step in tumor progression and metastasis [6,7]. Endostatin, a Mr 20,000 cleavage product of the COOH-terminal domain of collagen XVIII(NC1), has been considered as an important inhibitory molecules that can mediate the sequential steps involved in angiogenesis. Higher serum levels of endostatin induced experimentally in mice and rats seem to cause regression of various types of solid tumors, including prostate cancer [8–10]. In addition, Down's syndrome patients, who have a higher serum levels of endostatin because of their three copies of the

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\*\*Visiting research fellow at Vanderbilt University School of Medicine, Nashville, TN 37232, USA.

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Table 1  
Associations of endostatin polymorphisms with other clinical and pathological parameters

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III	18(81.82)	4(18.18)	

COL18A1 gene, have a decreased incidence of solid tumors, including prostate cancer [11]. Thus, lower levels or an impaired function of endostatin might be associated with a higher risk of developing malignant solid tumor or with a worse prognosis of the disease. Visakorpi et al. conducted a systematic analysis of the COL18A1 gene and found a missense mutation of D104N located in the COOH-terminal globular domain NC1 of collagen XVIII, the encoding region of *endostatin* [12]. Iughetti et al. found that heterozygous N104 individuals have a higher chance of developing prostate cancer compared with homozygous D104 subjects and proposed the presence of N104 impairs the function of endostatin [13]. In the present study we hypothesize that N104 may impair the function of endostatin and in turn affect the aggressiveness of prostate cancer. To testify our hypothesis we assessed the *endostatin* polymorphism present in 98 Caucasian patients with prostate cancer to determine whether D104N is correlated with well known prognostic factors as well as relapse free survival(RFS) and overall survival(OS).

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Patient population and clinical data

The study population consisted of 98 Caucasian patients with prostate cancer who underwent prostatectomy at Vanderbilt Hospital in 1997. The study was approved by Institutional Review Board (IRB# 030986) at Vanderbilt University School of Medicine. All patients had clinically localized prostate cancer and were treated with radical prostatectomy as a primary treat-

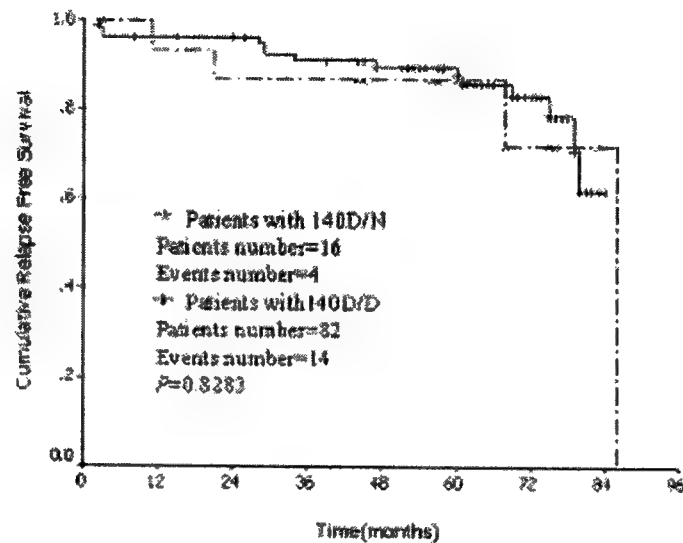
ment. All patients had adenocarcinoma confirmed histologically. The patients were followed at Vanderbilt Hospital or at local hospitals with a mean follow-up of 62 months. Patients' age ranged 40 to 81 with a median age of 63 years. All pathological information was reviewed by one pathologist and the tumor differentiation was evaluated using Gleason's score criteria. Clinical stage was classified according to the AJCC TNM staging system [14]. The Clinical and histological characteristics of the patients are summarized in Table 1.

### 2.2. Tissue preparation and DNA extraction

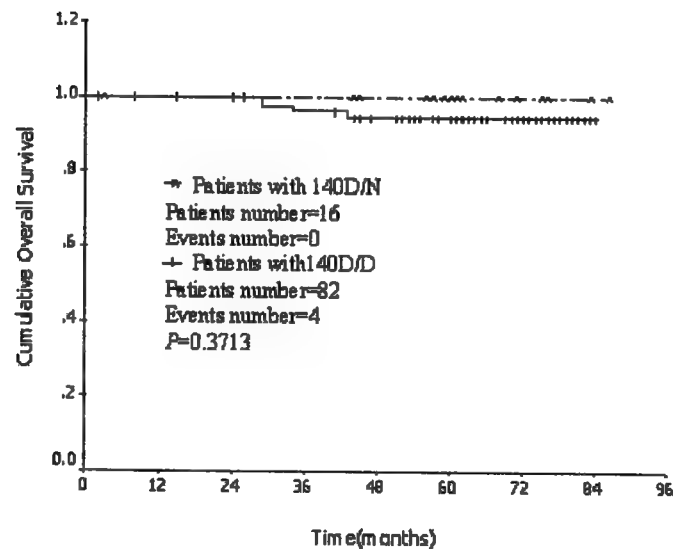
Using a standard microtome with disposable blades, 5 µm thickness sections of a representative areas of normal prostatic glands were cut from the paraffin embedded blocks and stained with Hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) and then examined under a microscope to verify the absence of prostate cancer. 5 µm thickness section (about 1 µg) from each patient was used for DNA extraction. The sections were deparaffinized with xylene at room temperature for 30 minutes twice. Then the deparaffinized tissue was washed with 100% ethanol twice. After the ethanol had evaporated completely, the tissue was completely lysed with proteinase K. Then QIAamp DNA Mini Kit (QIAGEN Inc, Valencia, CA) was used to extract extraction and purify DNA from the tissues according to the tissue protocol of the kit.

## 3. Polymorphism genotyping

The allelic discrimination of the *endostatin* gene 4349G/A polymorphism was assessed with the ABI



(A)



(B)

Fig. 1. Relapse free survival and overall survival curves. (A) RFS curves for patients with 4349G/G(140D/D) genotype and those with 4349G/A(140D/N); (B) OS curves for patients with 4349G/G(140D/D) genotype and those with 4349G/G (140D/N).

PRISM 7900 HT Sequence Detection System (Applied Biosystems). PCR was performed with a total volume of 5  $\mu$ l, which contained approximately 2.5 ng DNA, 1  $\times$  Taqman Universal PCR Master Mix, each primer at a concentration of 900 nM, and each probe at a concen-

tration of 200 nM. Primers for *endostatin* were from Applied Biosystems (Assay ID: C\_11872896\_10). Taqman probes were: A allele specific: 5'-VIC-GCC CGG GGC ACG CAT CTT CTC CTT TAA CGG CAA GGA CGT CCT GAG GCA CCC -NFQ-3'. G-allele specific:

5'-FAM- GCC CGG GGC ACG CAT CTT CTC CTT TGA CGG CAA GGA CGT CCT GAG GCA CCC -NFQ-3'. The thermal cycling conditions were as follows: 95°C for 10 min to activate the AmpliTaq Gold enzyme, followed by 40 cycles of 15 seconds at 95°C and 60 seconds at 60°C. The fluorescence levels were measured with an ABI PRISM 7900 HT Sequence Detector (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), resulting in clear identification of three genotypes of each polymorphism.

The laboratory staff was blind to the identity of the subjects. Quality control (QC) samples were included in the genotyping assays. Each 384 well plate contained four water, eight CEPH 1347-02 DNA, eight blinded QC samples, and eight unblinded QC samples. The blinded and unblinded QC samples were taken from the second tube of study samples included in this study.

#### 4. Statistical analysis

Relapses free survival (RFS) was defined as the time between the date of the primary surgery to the date of relapse or the date of last follow-up. Overall survival (OS) was defined as time between the date of the primary surgery to the date of death or the date of last follow-up. The Kaplan-Meier method was used to compute 5-year survival rates and log-rank test was applied to test the difference in survival across different genotype. The associations between the *endostatin* polymorphism and other clinical and pathological characters was analyzed by Fisher's exact test. P-values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant. All statistical analyses were two sided. We conducted the statistical analysis with SAS 9.1 SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC.

#### 5. Results

##### 5.1. The correlation of 104D/N polymorphism with other clinical and pathological parameters

With Taqman SNP genotyping assay, the concordance of the blinded samples was 100%. Genotypes for 4349G/A polymorphism were successfully determined in 98 samples. The frequencies of homozygous 4349G(104D/D), and heterozygous 4349G/A(104D/N) were 83.67%(82/98) and 16.33%(16/98), respectively. With Fisher's exact test, *Endostatin* polymorphism was found to have no significant relationship with age ( $P = 0.6886$ ), PSA ( $P = 0.2791$ ), Gleason's grade ( $P = 0.2640$ ) and clinical stage ( $P = 0.7479$ ) (Table 1).

##### 5.2. Survival analysis

The Kaplan-Meier method was used to compute survival rates and the log-rank test was applied to test the difference in survival across different genotypes. 5-year relapse free survival rates and overall survival rates for this group of patients were 87.71% and 95.64% respectively. There was no significant difference between subjects with D104N and those with D104D in RFS and OS (Log-rank test,  $P = 0.8283$  and  $0.3713$  respectively) (Fig. 1A,B).

#### 6. Discussion

In the current study, we analyzed the 4349G/A (D104N) polymorphism in 98 Caucasian patients and did not find any association between the polymorphism and other clinical and pathological variables, and we did not find any significant association between 4349G/A(D104N) polymorphism and patients' survival (RFS and OS) either.

Higher serum levels of endostatin induced experimentally in mice and rats seem to cause regression of various types of solid tumors, including prostate cancer [8–10]. Clinical study also showed that individuals with higher levels of endostatin might be less prone to develop solid tumors [15]. The missense mutation of D104N located in the COOH-terminal globular domain NC1 of collagen XVIII was found to be in the encoding region of *endostatin* by Visakorpi et al. in 1999 [12]. It has been recently shown that gene polymorphisms affect cancer cell proliferation, differentiation as well as tumor invasion/metastasis [16]. The possible association of D104N with cancer risk and prognosis remains poorly investigated. Iughetti et al reported that individuals heterozygous for N104 have a 2.5 times greater chance of developing prostate cancer as compared with homozygous D104 subjects (OR: 2.4, 95%CI:1.4–4.16); the author proposed that *endostatin* N104 has a decreased affinity for binding to other molecules and an impaired ability to inhibit angiogenesis [13]. In a case-control study containing 58 multiple myeloma patients, Ortega et al reported that the genotype frequencies were in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium and that the D104N polymorphism was an unimportant determinant in multiple myeloma patients [17]. Liu et al. reported a case control study including 274 patients with leukemia and 178 normal controls. In Liu's study there were no patients homozygous for 4349A which was similar to our study; they found no association with



endostatin polymorphism and the risk of leukemia [17, 18]. Most of the previous studies showed there were no association between the D104N polymorphism and malignancies. Only Iughetti et al. reported a higher risk ratio of developing prostate cancer for heterozygous N104 individuals, but even in this study they did not find any association between the presence of the mutation and Gleason score or age at diagnosis. We not only further confirm D104N polymorphism had no relationship with Gleason score or age at diagnosis, but also demonstrate that the D104N polymorphism has no relationship with PSA level, clinical stage as well as RFS and OS of patients.

The discrepancies between our study and previous studies might due to several reasons. The translation of results from different studies might be limited due to the limited sample size and different patient selection. In our study we selected stage I or II Caucasian patients. Another reason is that we analyze the relationship between the *endostatin* polymorphism and prostate cancer from the aspect of aggressiveness of disease but not cancer risk and this will also cause the discrepancies between our study and previous ones. Last but not the least reason, most of the previous studies as well as ours were retrospective and the conclusions must be drawn cautiously. So far, to the authors' knowledge there is no data from prospective randomized study available.

In conclusion, our study indicated that the *endostatin* polymorphism 4349G/A (D104N) is not associated with aggressiveness of disease in Caucasian patients with prostate cancer.

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## **Enhanced Radiation Damage of Tumor Vasculature by mTOR**

### **Inhibitors**

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Abbreviations: HUVEC, human umbilical vein endothelial cells; VEGF, vascular  
endothelial growth factor; PTEN, phosphate and tensin homologue deleted on  
chromosome ten; PI3K, Phosphoinositol-3 kinase; mTOR, Mammalian target of  
rapamycin

**Abstract**

It is known that radiation activates the PI3K/Akt pathway and that inhibition of PI3K or Akt sensitizes tumor vasculature to radiotherapy. mTOR is a downstream target of Akt, and we hypothesized that irradiation activates mTOR signaling in both glioma and endothelial cells. By inhibiting this activation we hypothesized that we could increase radiosensitization of these cell lines. Two compounds which selectively inhibit mTOR, Rapamycin and RAD001 (everolimus) were used in this study. Both compounds caused a significant increase in sensitization of vascular endothelial cells with only minor effects on glioma cell radiosensitivity as determined by clonogenic assay. Therefore, we specifically investigated the anti-angiogenic effects of mTOR inhibitors. Increased phospho-mTOR protein was detected in irradiated HUVEC cells with no detectable increase in total mTOR protein. Phospho-S6, a biomarker for mTOR signaling, was also found to be induced following irradiation and this effect was inhibited by PI3K or mTOR inhibitors. Significant increase in cleaved caspase 3 was detected when Rad001 was combined with radiation. Endothelial tube formation was significantly diminished following treatment with Rapamycin and 3 Gy. Power Weighted Doppler of glioma xenografts in mice showed a significant reduction in vasculature and blood flow compared with mice treated with 3 Gy or RAD001 alone. We conclude that irradiation activates mTOR signaling in vascular endothelium and that Rapamycin and RAD001 increased apoptosis of endothelial cells in response to radiation. To the authors' best knowledge this is the first study which demonstrates that mTOR inhibitors may be a way to target the vasculature by radiosensitizing the vascular endothelium resulting in better tumor control as seen in experiments demonstrating increased tumor growth delay in mice treated with rapamycin with radiation compared with mice treat with either alone.

We conclude that mTOR inhibitors have increased efficacy as antiangiogenics when combined with radiation.

**Introduction**

Approximately 17,400 primary brain tumors are newly diagnosed each year in the United States (Landis et al., 1998). The incidence of malignant glial neoplasms account for more than 60% of primary adult brain tumors of which about 75 % are Glioblastoma Multiforme (GBM) (Grade IV). Patients with GBM have median survivals of only 8 to 10 months (Curran et al., 1993). Radiation therapy remains the single most effective adjuvant treatment for malignant astrocytomas (Salazar & Rubin, 1976; Walker et al., 1980). However, most patients treated with standard radiation therapy alone have in-field recurrences that inevitably lead to the patient's death because no adequate salvage therapy exists (Hochberg & Pruitt, 1980; Wallner et al., 1989). Radiation resistance of malignant gliomas is partly due to their vascular abundance. The up-regulation of angiogenesis is a key event that accompanies glioma progression (Leon et al., 1996; Wesseling et al., 1997). Phosphoinositol-3 kinase kinase/Akt survival pathway has been found to be responsible for tumor promotion, aggressiveness, and resistance to both radiotherapy and BCNU-based chemotherapy in glioblastoma cells (Chakravarti et al., 2002; Ermoian et al., 2002; Holland et al., 2000; Sonoda et al., 2001). Inhibition of the PI3K/Akt pathway radiosensitizes tumor vasculature in mouse glioma models, possibly by inhibiting radiation-activated Akt phosphorylation in endothelial cells (Edwards et al., 2002; Tan & Hallahan, 2003). Similar Akt activation was shown to be induced by ionizing radiation in a glioma cell line via the EGFR pathway (Chakravarti et al., 2002). Therefore, blocking the pro-survival activity of PI3K/Akt that is induced by radiation may augment cytotoxic effects upon both glioma cells and its vasculature.

Mammalian target of rapamycin (**mTOR**) is a downstream target of Akt (Nave et al., 1999). It was shown that VEGF-stimulated HUVEC proliferation was effectively inhibited by Rapamycin, indicating that mTOR is a key molecule for endothelial cell

survival (Yu & Sato, 1999). mTOR may also be important for the survival of glioma

cells since certain glioma cell lines were shown to be sensitive to Rapamycin and its derivatives (Hosoi et al., 1998). mTOR has also been shown to affect cells in numerous ways including decreased proliferation, increased apoptosis, and induction of autophagy, all of which appear to be cell line dependent (Huang & Houghton, 2003; Majumder et al., 2004; Munafo & Colombo, 2001). The present study examined whether mTOR signaling is activated by irradiation and whether mTOR inhibitors, Rapamycin and RAD001, could sensitizes glioma to radiotherapy by inhibiting either angiogenesis or tumor growth, and by which mechanism cell death occurs.

**Cell Culture:**

HUVECs were obtained from Clonetics and were maintained in EBM-2 medium supplemented with EGM-2 MV single aliquots (BioWhittaker). GL261 cells were maintained in DMEM with Nutrient Mixture F-12 1:1 (Life Technologies, Inc.) with 7% FCS, 0.5% penicillin-streptomycin, and 1% sodium pyruvate. All cells were incubated in a 37°C in a 5% CO<sub>2</sub> incubator. Irradiation was given, by use of a Cobalt-60 radioactive source.

**Western Immunoblots:**

Cells were treated or irradiated according to the individual study (Doses: LY294002 3  $\mu$ M, Rapamycin 100 nM, RAD001 50 nM). At the time of harvest, cells were counted and then washed with iced-cold PBS twice before the addition of lysis buffer (20 mM Tris, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1% Triton X-100, 2.5 mM sodium PPI, 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, and leupeptin). Protein concentration was quantified by the Bio-Rad method. Equal amounts of protein were loaded into each well and separated by 10% SDS-PAGE gel, followed by transfer onto nitrocellulose membranes. Membranes were blocked by use of 10% nonfat dry milk in PBS for 2 h at room temperature. The blots were then incubated with the rabbit-anti phospho-mTOR (Ser2448), total mTOR, cleaved caspase 3, total Caspase 3,  $\beta$ -actin, phospho-S6, total-S6, (Cell Signaling) antibodies overnight at 4°C. Goat antirabbit IgG secondary antibody (1:1000; Amersham) was incubated for 1 h at room temperature. Immunoblots were developed by using the enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) detection system (Amersham) according to the manufacturer's protocol and autoradiography.

**In vitro Clonogenic Assay:**

HUVEC and GL261 cells were treated with either rapamycin at a dose of 100 nM or DMSO for one hour. Cells were irradiated with 3 Gy and media was changed. After irradiation, cells were returned to 37 °C incubation and maintained for 2 weeks. Cells were then fixed for 15 min with 3:1 methanol: acetic acid and stained for 15 min with 0.5% crystal violet (Sigma) in methanol. After staining, colonies were counted by the naked eye with a cutoff of 50 viable cells. Surviving fraction was calculated as (mean colony counts)/(cells inoculated)×(plating efficiency), where plating efficiency was defined as (mean colony counts)/(cells inoculated for un-irradiated controls). HUVEC were examined further with RAD001 at a 5 nM dose as done previously with rapamycin.

**Tumor Volume Assessment**

C57BL/6 mice received subcutaneous injection of one million GL261 cells into the right hind limb. After 7-10 days when average tumor volume reached 0.2 cm<sup>3</sup>, mice were stratified into groups (five mice per group), so that the mean tumor volume in each group was comparable. Mice were then treated with rapamycin at a dose of 2 mg/kg. Treatment groups consisted of: DMSO control, Rapamycin alone, Radiotherapy alone, and Rapamycin +Radiotherapy respectively. The radiation groups received 3 Gy of radiation fractionated over 14 days (twice a week) using a Cobalt irradiator to the tumor with the remainder of the body shielded with lead. Rapamycin was administered orally at a dose of 2 mg/kg prior to radiotherapy and twice a week after the completion of radiotherapy. Tumor volume measurements began on treatment day 1 and continued twice a week until the tumor volumes became 10% of the body size. Measurements were



made using skin calipers, as previously described (Edwards et al., 2002). Tumor volumes were calculated using a formula ( $a \times b \times c/2$ ) that was derived from the formula for an ellipsoid. Data was calculated as the percentage of the original (day 1) tumor volume and graphed as percent change in tumor volume  $\pm$  SD for each treatment group

### **Color Doppler Sonography**

C57BL/6 mice with implanted as described in the tumor volume methods. Mice were treated with oral RAD001 at a dose of 2.5 mg/kg as described above. Tumor models in the four treatment groups underwent non-invasive color Doppler sonographic (CDS) imaging to quantitatively assess tumor blood flow, using a 10-5 MHz linear array Entos probe attached to an HDI 500 ultrasound scanner (ATL/Philips, Bothell, WA). CDS images were obtained with a power gain of 82%. Care was taken to minimize motion artifact during image acquisition. A 10-second cineloop of the entire tumor area was obtained with the transducer positioned perpendicularly to the long axis of the lower extremity. Post-processing of tumor images with HDI-lab software (ATL/Philips) allowed for the calculations of color pixel density [CPD= (# of color pixels in tumor region)/(total # of pixels in tumor region)] and mean power of color pixels [MPCP=(sum of color pixel intensities in region)/(total area of color pixels in region) for individual regions of interest. Regions of interest were manually defined for 1) the entire tumor area and 2) the superficial peripheral zone at the edge of the tumor. These measurements were acquired at two time points over the course of tumor growth to longitudinally assess changes in tumor blood flow and vascularity.

Mean values of CDP and MPCP for each of the four groups of mice before and after treatment were calculated, and the Student's unpaired t test was employed to make

statistical comparisons for vascularity before and after treatment. P values of less than 0.5 were considered significant.

**Endothelial Cell (EC) Morphogenesis Assay: Tube Formation.**

HUVEC cells were treated with rapamycin (100 nM), radiotherapy or both. To examine the ability of the treated HUVECs to produce tubular structures *in vitro*, 24-well plates were coated with 300  $\mu$ l of Matrigel (BD Bioscience). When plated on Matrigel, the rapamycin treated or irradiated HUVECs were trypsinized and seeded at 48,000 cells/well. These cells undergo differentiation into capillary-like tube structures and were periodically observed by microscope. Tubules were stained with cell staining solution for 30 minutes at room temperature. Stained tubules were washed 3x with PBS and absorbance was read at 550 nm. Capillary-like structures were counted in triplicate using low power fields (x40), and percentage inhibition was expressed assuming untreated differentiated ECs as 100%.

**Results:****mTOR inhibitor, rapamycin, sensitizes glioma and endothelial cells to radiation by decreasing cell survival:**

Rapamycin is a known inhibitor of mTOR. To determine whether inhibition of mTOR is sufficient to sensitize GL261 and HUVEC cells to radiotherapy clonogenic assays were performed. Both GL261 and HUVEC were treated with either 100 nM of Rapamycin or a DMSO control and incubated for one hour. This was followed with escalating radiation doses from 0-7 Gy. The Rapamycin or DMSO was washed off after irradiation. After 2 weeks, colonies were stained and the scored colonies were graphed. This experiment was repeated in HUVEC cells treated with RAD001 at a dose of 5 nM.

Cells treated with rapamycin or Rad001 alone had reduced plating efficiency. Interestingly, rapamycin significantly lowered the survival curve of irradiated HUVEC cells but only had a minor effect on GL261 cells as shown in Figure 1A and B respectively. Similar inhibitory effects were observed when HUVEC were treated with 5 nM of Rad001 as shown in Figure 1C.

**Irradiation induces mTOR signaling in endothelial cells:**

In order to determine whether irradiation activates the mTOR signaling pathway in endothelial cells, HUVEC cells were irradiated with 3 Gy and phosphorylated mTOR protein levels were measured by Western immunoblots which were probed for with p-mTOR antibody at the indicated time points. As shown in Figure 2A, phosphorylated mTOR was increased at 15 minutes following 3 Gy in HUVEC. The increase in phospho-mTOR persisted at one hour after irradiation, however, the level of total mTOR protein did not increase following irradiation with 3Gy in HUVEC. We then examined the change of a biomarker for mTOR activity, phosphor-S6, following treatment with an

mTOR inhibitor and radiation. HUVEC cells were treated with LY294002 (3  $\mu$ M), a

known PI3K inhibitor, or Rad001 (50 nM). 30 minutes after treatment with either inhibitor, cells were treated with 3 Gy of radiation. Cell lysates were then collected and run on gels. Gels were probed for total and phospho-S6, which is downstream from mTOR and when phosphorylated serves as a biomarker for mTOR activation. As shown in Figure 2B, HUVEC treated with 3 Gy showed increased levels of S6 phosphorylation. Cells treated with LY294002 or Rad001 alone showed very little S6 phosphorylation either with or without irradiation, similar to non-irradiated HUVEC.

#### **mTOR inhibition induces apoptosis in HUVEC:**

To determine whether mTOR inhibition induces apoptosis in HUVEC we used western analysis to probe for cleaved caspase 3. HUVEC were treated with vehicle (DMSO), 3 Gy, Rad001 (50 nM) and Rad001 with 3 Gy. Cells were treated with Rad001 one hour prior to radiation and proteins were collected 6 hours later. Cleaved caspase 3 and total caspase 3 were probed for as shown in Figure 2C. DMSO alone showed no induction of caspase 3 cleavage, whereas there was minor induction of caspase 3 cleavage in cells treated with 3 Gy or Rad001 alone. However, combined therapy with Rad001 and 3 Gy resulted in the greatest increase in Caspase 3 cleavage when compared with the other groups. Total caspase 3 showed no change in all groups.

#### **Rapamycin sensitizes vascular endothelium to radiation injury in in vitro and in vivo studies:**

Since rapamycin reduced the survival of HUVEC cells, we studied rapamycin effects on tumor angiogenesis. HUVEC cells were treated with either 100 nM rapamycin or DMSO for one hour. Cells were then irradiated with 0 or 3Gy. Rapamycin and

DMSO were washed off after irradiation. The endothelial cell morphogenesis assay was performed to examine the ability of the treated HUVECs to produce tubular structures *in vitro*. As shown in Figure 3, HUVEC cells that were treated with both rapamycin and 3 Gy formed 3-4 fold less tubular structures, in contrast to the DMSO group. The groups treated with radiotherapy or rapamycin alone had nearly a one fold reduction of tubular structure.

Color Doppler Sonography (CDS) was used to determine the *in vivo* effects of these various treatment regimens on tumor neovascularization over the course of treatment. At the onset of treatment, all tumors in the respective groups showed a moderate amount of vascularity, as indicated by the representative image of a control tumor at the onset of treatment (Figure 4). After 11 days of tumor progression, control tumors displayed a significant increase in CDS signal. This signal was increased with respect to the tumor volume. The tumor volume is defined, and the number of color pixels within the tumor are compared to the non colored pixels in the tumor volume. Tumors receiving radiation therapy alone demonstrated a lesser increase in CDS, whereas tumors receiving systemic RAD001 at a dose of 2.5 mg/kg alone exhibited little change in CDS. Tumors receiving concomitant radiation and RAD001 demonstrated an appreciable diminution in CDS signal over the course of treatment. Because these are just subjective pictures we then used software to analyze vascularity and blood flow.

The quantified calculations of color pixel density (CPD) and mean power of color pixels (MPCP) for each group of mice are graphed in Figure 4. They were consistent with the increases and decreases subjectively ascertained from the sonographic images. CPD is an indicator of *in vivo* tumor vascular density whereas MPCP is more indicative of blood flow through the tumor. In the tumor peripheral zones, the subjects that received no treatments demonstrated a 95% overall increase in CPD ( $P < 0.001$ ) and a 48%

increase in MPCP ( $P<0.03$ ). For the mice that received radiation therapy alone, tumors demonstrated relatively less vascular growth than those of the control mice, with increases of 31% for CDP and 17% for MPCP. Tumors receiving Rad001 demonstrated even more restricted neovascularization and only small changes in these calculations, namely an 8% decrease in CDP and a 1% increase in MPCP. The group of mice receiving combination therapy were the only treatment group to express significant decreases in blood supply, with a 32% reduction in CDP ( $P<0.05$ ) and 36% reduction in MPCP ( $P<0.03$ ).

**Rapamycin enhanced radiation-induced tumor regression:**

To determine whether inhibition of mTOR enhances radiation-induced tumor volume regression, GL261 glioma xenograft were established and tumor volumes were measured by use of calipers, as described previously (Edwards et al., 2002). GL261 tumor-bearing mice were treated with 3 Gy twice a week for two weeks. Rapamycin was given orally at a dose of 2 mg/kg prior to radiotherapy. As shown in Figure 5 a and b, the prescribed doses of radiotherapy or rapamycin were effective in controlling the growth of GL261 xenografts. Rapamycin given with radiation induced tumor growth delays of 18 days and 15 days, respectively, when compared with radiation alone.

**Discussion:**

Akt activation is known to be induced by irradiation in both glioma and endothelial cells and is upstream of mTOR. In the present study, we have shown that irradiation activates mTOR signaling in vascular endothelium, and that this activation is mediated by PI3K, however there was minimal radiosensitization on GL261 cells. Based on these findings we investigated the effects of mTOR inhibition on HUVEC cells. We found that levels of phospho-mTOR and Phospho-S6 are increased following irradiation in HUVEC.

mTOR is becoming an important target for a new line of anti-cancer drugs such as CCI-779 and RAD001, which are derived from rapamycin and exhibit significant anti-cancer activity in various tumor cell lines (Boulay et al., 2004; Huang & Houghton, 2003). The activation of mTOR enhances protein translation via phosphorylating eukaryotic initiation factor 4E-binding protein 1 (4E-BP1) and 70-kDa S6 kinase (S6K1) (Raught et al., 2001). S6 phosphorylation has been used as a biomarker for mTOR activation (Eshleman et al., 2002). mTOR may be essential for the survival of glioma since certain glioma cell lines were shown to be sensitive to rapamycin and its derivatives (Hosoi et al., 1998). Furthermore, rapamycin has been reported to sensitize U87 glioma xenografts to radiotherapy (Eshleman et al., 2002). Consistent with our results, Eshelman et al. also found that a monolayer of glioma cells treated with Rapamycin had no change in radiosensitivity. This study also showed that when glioma cells were grown in spheroids, treatment with rapamycin induced radiosensitization and the authors propose that this effect may be due to rapamycin improving the oxygenation of the spheroids. This study demonstrated that there is a radiosensitizing effect intrinsic to the tumor mass that is independent of the host component (Eshleman et al., 2002). However, they also

postulated that the host component was important in the improved tumor growth delay

observed in animals treated with rapamycin and radiation (Eshleman et al., 2002).

In our study, we addressed the role of the host component of glioma and more specifically the effects of rapamycin on the radiosensitivity of gliomal vasculature. We found that rapamycin failed to induce radiosensitization in GL261 monolayers, in agreement with Eshleman et al (Eshleman et al., 2002). In contrast, the radiosensitizing effect of mTOR inhibition on HUVEC monolayers was shown in colony assays. Further evidence that mTOR inhibition is an effective vascular radiosensitizer are found in previous studies that have shown that rapamycin inhibits angiogenesis, likely by reducing VEGF expression (Guba et al., 2002). Geng et al have shown that VEGF inhibition has a radiosensitizing effects on tumor vasculature (Geng et al., 2001). Further studies have suggested that reduced VEGF expression may induce its antiangiogenic effects in a S6 dependent fashion (Yu & Sato, 1999). These findings suggest that in addition to the direct effects of rapamycin on tumor cells in in vivo models, rapamycin is also causing an antiangiogenic effect.

To the authors' knowledge, this is the first study to demonstrate the radiosensitizing effects of rapamycin on the host vasculature. Results from in vitro endothelial cell tubule formation assays suggest that mTOR inhibition augments the effects of radiation on vascular endothelial migratory ability. These results indicated that rapamycin had significant inhibitory effects on tubule formation, consistent with rapamycin's antiangiogenic effects shown in by Guba et al (Guba et al., 2002). Doppler data further supports this with in vivo data. Results indicated significant reduction in vascularity and flow of tumors treated with mTOR inhibitors alone, also consistent with Guba et al (Guba et al., 2002). We have shown that radiation used in combination with mTOR inhibitors had an even greater effect on the tumor vasculature when compared



with either treatment alone. From these results, we propose that mTOR inhibitors are an important radiosensitizer in the vascular endothelium. Tumor volume study results in mice further support this, with a significant increase in growth delay in mice treated with rapamycin and radiation compared with either treatment alone, consistent with the findings of Eshleman et al.

The difference between GL261 and HUVEC response to radiation given with mTOR inhibitors has several explanations. Several different mutations and differences in protein expression have been found to be linked to how cells respond to mTOR inhibition (Huang & Houghton, 2001). Malignant cell lines show a remarkable variance in sensitivity to rapamycin, displaying a several thousand-fold difference in intrinsic sensitivity (Dilling et al., 1994). However, the vascular endothelium provides a consistent target across both different cell lines and the heterogeneity within a cancer type. Furthermore, whether rapamycin induces a cytotoxic, cytostatic, or a cytotoxic/cytostatic response appears to be cell line dependent (Hosoi et al., 1998; Hosoi et al., 1999; Huang et al., 2001). ATM (Beamish et al., 1996), p53 (Huang et al., 2001) and PTEN (Majumder et al., 2004), have all been linked to rapamycin resistance. PTEN is mutated in 20-30% of glioblastoma (Duerr et al., 1998; Li et al., 1997). Low expression levels of PTEN were associated with poor patient survival, possibly by up-regulating Akt (Ermoian et al., 2002). PTEN gene transfer results in inhibition of S-phase entry in glioblastoma cells (Cheney et al., 1999), reduced growth and angiogenesis in mouse glioma models (Wen et al., 2001) and sensitization to irradiation in glioma cell cultures (Wick et al., 1999). P53 mutations are the most common abnormality in human malignancy (Gaidano et al., 1991) and p53 is mutated in approximately one third of gliomas (Lang et al., 1994; Newcomb et al., 1993).

Additional defects that may lead to resistance in certain cell lines include defects in FKBP12 and the FRB domain. To bind to the FRB domain and inhibit mTOR, rapamycin must first bind to FKBP12. Mutations in either the FKBP12 protein (Dumont et al., 1995) or the FRB domain (Chen et al., 1995; Dumont et al., 1995) attenuate Rapamycin binding ability. Downstream targets of mTOR may also be mutated or have a decrease in production leading to rapamycin resistance. S6K1 is a major downstream target of mTOR and several mutation in S6K1 phosphorylation sites are associated with resistance to rapamycin (Dennis et al., 1996). Another protein, 4E-BP1, a suppressor of eIF4E, is also known to be a downstream target of mTOR (Gingras et al., 2001). Recently it has been shown that decreased levels of 4E-BP1 are also associated with rapamycin resistance (Dilling et al., 2002). Differences in these proteins may also explain the different response between GL261 and HUVEC cells. It also provides a rational for focusing on the vascular endothelium for radiosensitization due to less heterogeneity across patients.

In summary, our data suggests that irradiation activates mTOR cell survival signaling in glioma vascular endothelium via a PI3K/Akt dependent pathway. mTOR inhibition resulted in marked increase in HUVEC radiosensitization with only minor sensitization in GL261 cells. Rapamycin's effects on vascular endothelium were further confirmed with tubule formation studies and Power Doppler studies which indicated that vascular endothelium was affected in both in vitro and in vivo. We demonstrated that RAD001 is an effective radiosensitizer in the GL261 glioma model using tumor volume curves.

**Figure Legends:**

**Figure 1. mTOR inhibition radiosensitizes HUVEC but not GL261 cells.** GL261 and HUVEC cells were treated with 100 nM of rapamycin or DMSO for one hour. Cells were then irradiated with 3 Gy and media was changed. After two weeks colonies were scored. Shown are GL261 (A) and HUVEC (B) treated with radiation alone and radiation with rapamycin at indicated doses. RAD001 (50 nM) treated HUVEC are shown in C.

**Figure 2. Radiation induces mTOR phosphorylation in HUVEC:** HUVEC cells were treated with 3 Gy and cell lysates were collected at 0, 15, 30, 60 minutes. Shown are HUVEC lysates run on a gel treated with p-mTOR and m-TOR antibodies (A). To determine whether mTOR activation was PI3K dependent a PI3K inhibitor, LY294002 was used. mTOR activation was confirmed by probing for S6 phosphorylation, a biomarker for mTOR activation. HUVEC were treated with DMSO, 3 Gy, LY294002 (3  $\mu$ M), Rad001 (50 nM), LY294002 with 3 Gy, and Rad001 with 3 Gy. Shown are western blot probed for phosphorylated S6 and total S6 (B). HUVEC were treated with DMSO, 3 Gy, Rad001 (50nM) or Rad001 with 3 Gy. Shown are western blots probed for cleaved caspase 3 and total caspase 3 (C).

**Figure 3. Rapamycin sensitizes vascular endothelium to radiation injury:** HUVEC ( $4.8 \times 10^4$  cells) were treated with rapamycin (100 nM), radiation, or both. They were then resuspended and plated on 24-well plates coated with Matrigel, as described in the "Materials and Methods" section. After 24 hours, the media were gently aspirated and the cells were fixed and stained. The slides were examined for tube formation by microscopy

(x 40). Representative figures and quantitation of tubular structures are shown. Data is shown as the mean +/- SD.

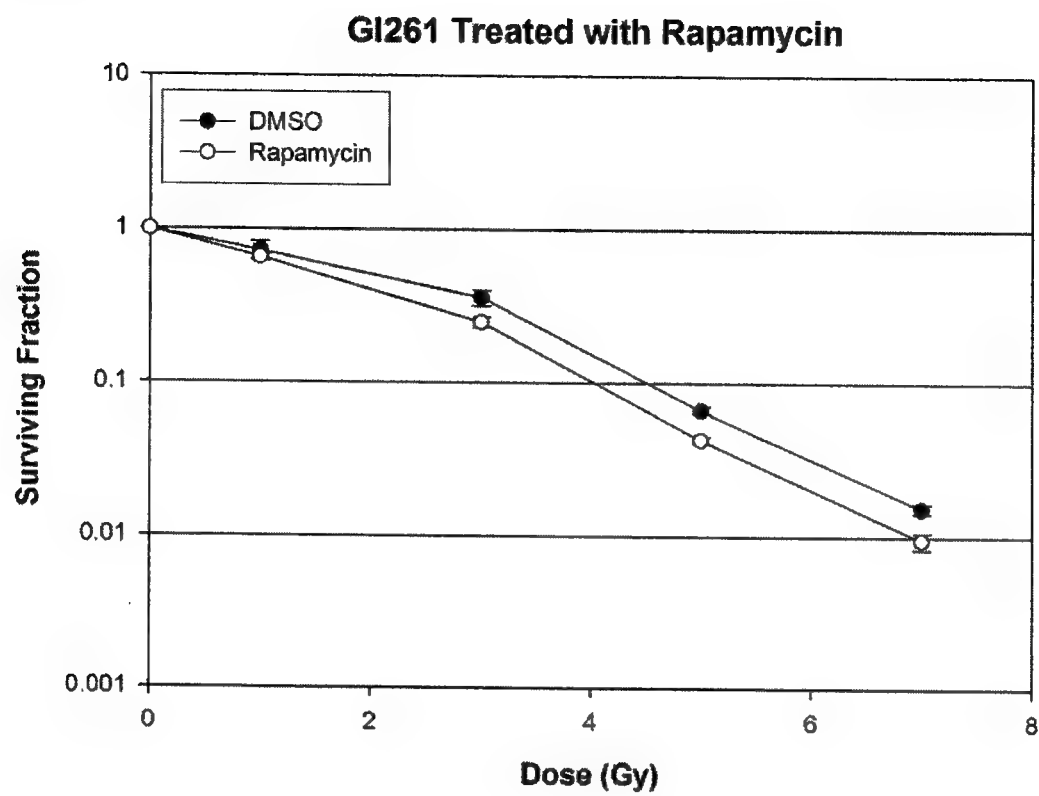
**Figure 4. Longitudinal changes in tumor blood supply in various treatment conditions:** Color Doppler ultrasound images depict longitudinal development of blood supply in in vivo murine GL261 tumors (4A) before treatment. After 11 days of treatment mice tumors were redoppled. Shown are (4B) no treatment intervention, (4C) radiation treatment alone, (4D) systemic RAD001 (2.5 mg/kg) chemotherapy, and (4E) concomitant irradiation and RAD001. Tumors borders are visible as oval masses surrounded by normal muscle. Color Doppler signal indicates relative blood flow, with the biggest increases neovascularity occurring in untreated tumors, and marked diminution of vascularity in tumors receiving combined irradiation and RAD001.

Color Doppler sonographic calculations of percent changes of color density of pixels (CDS), which correlates with tumor vascularity, and mean power of color pixels (MPCP), which correlates with tumor blood flow as shown in figure 4 (bottom). Control tumors demonstrated significant increases in vascularity and blood flow, whereas tumors receiving combination RAD001 with radiation demonstrated significant decreases in blood flow. (\*  $P < 0.001$ ; \*\*  $P < 0.05$ , †  $P < 0.03$ ).

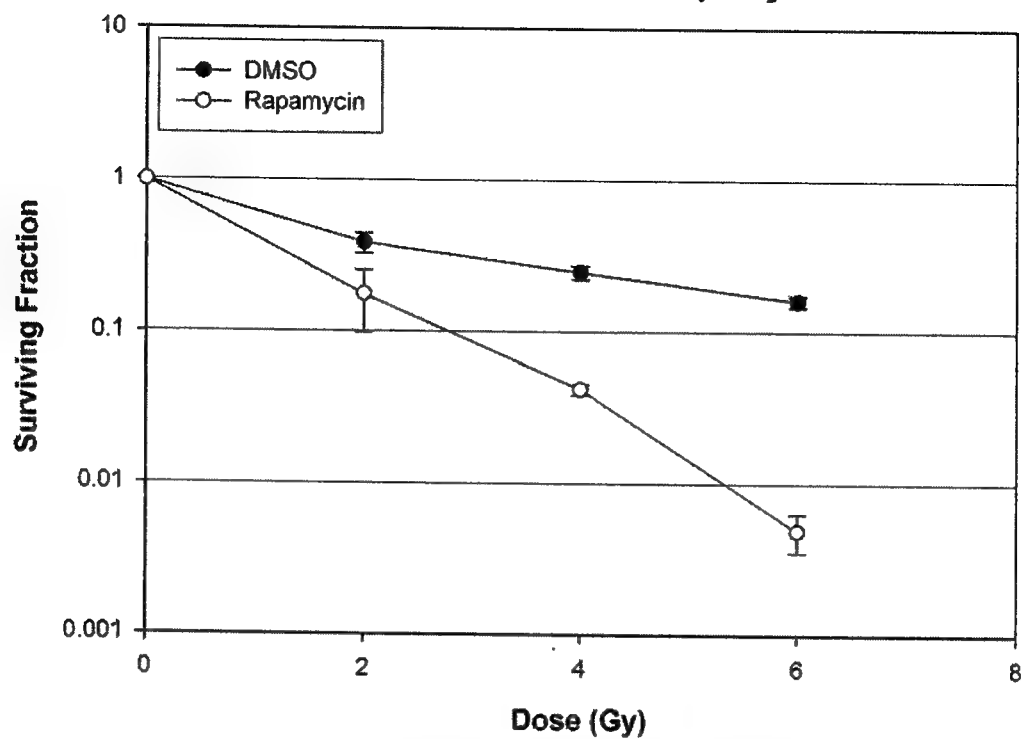
**Figure 5. Rapamycin enhanced radiation-induced tumor regression:** GL261 tumors implanted in the hind limb of C57BL/6 mice (five mice per treatment group) were treated with 2 mg/kg of rapamycin (p.o.), with or without 3 Gy twice a week for two weeks. Fold increase in tumor volume was calculated as the ratio of current volume divided by original tumor volume (day 1) ( $V/V_i$ ) and graphed (A) as fold change in tumor volume +/- SD for each treatment group.

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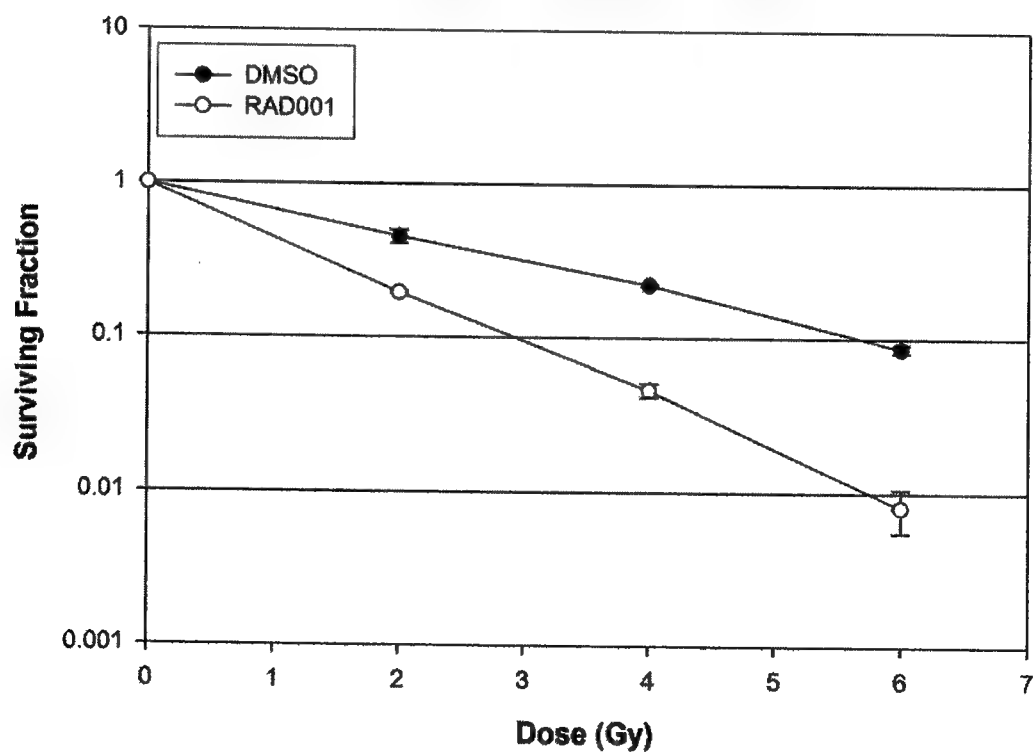
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### HUVEC Treated with Rapamycin

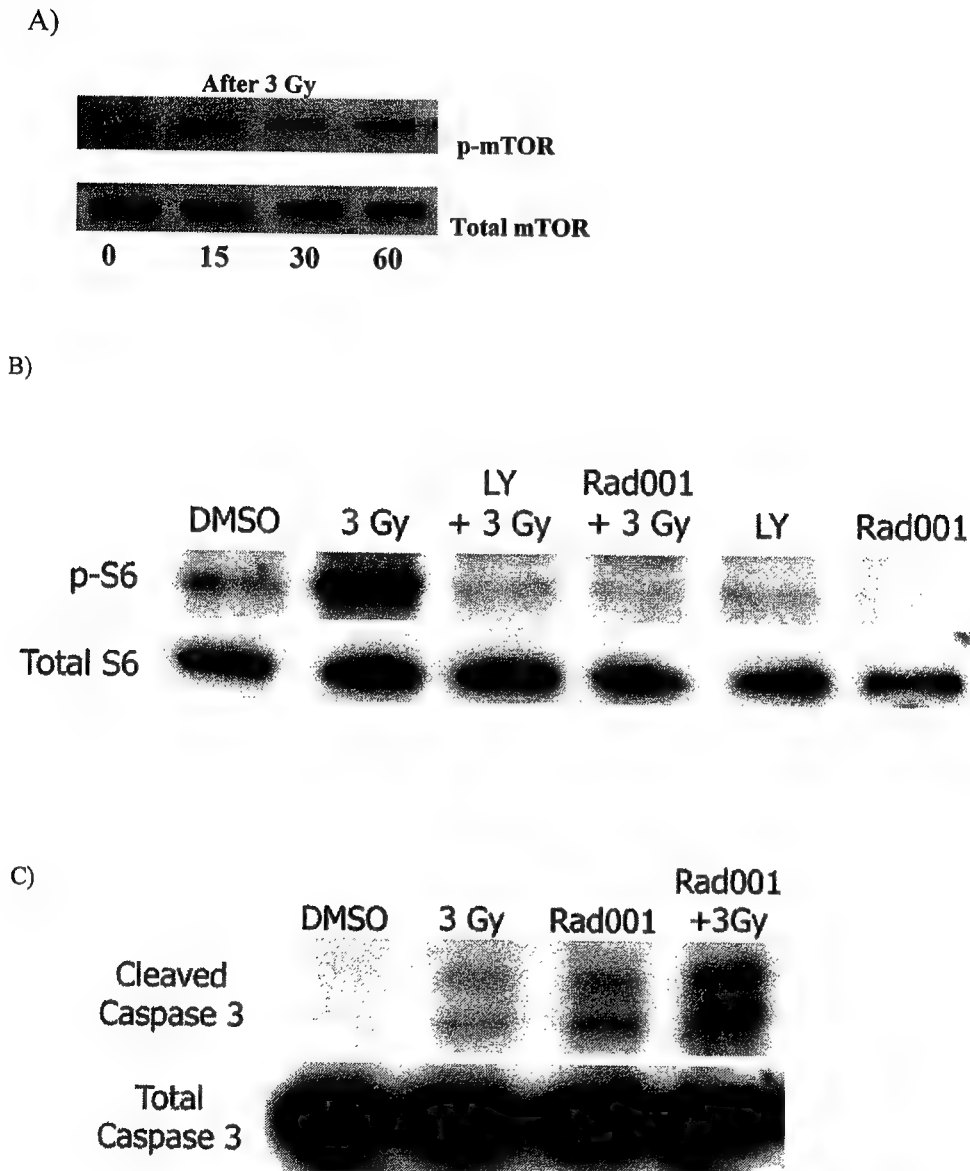


### HUVEC Treated with RAD001

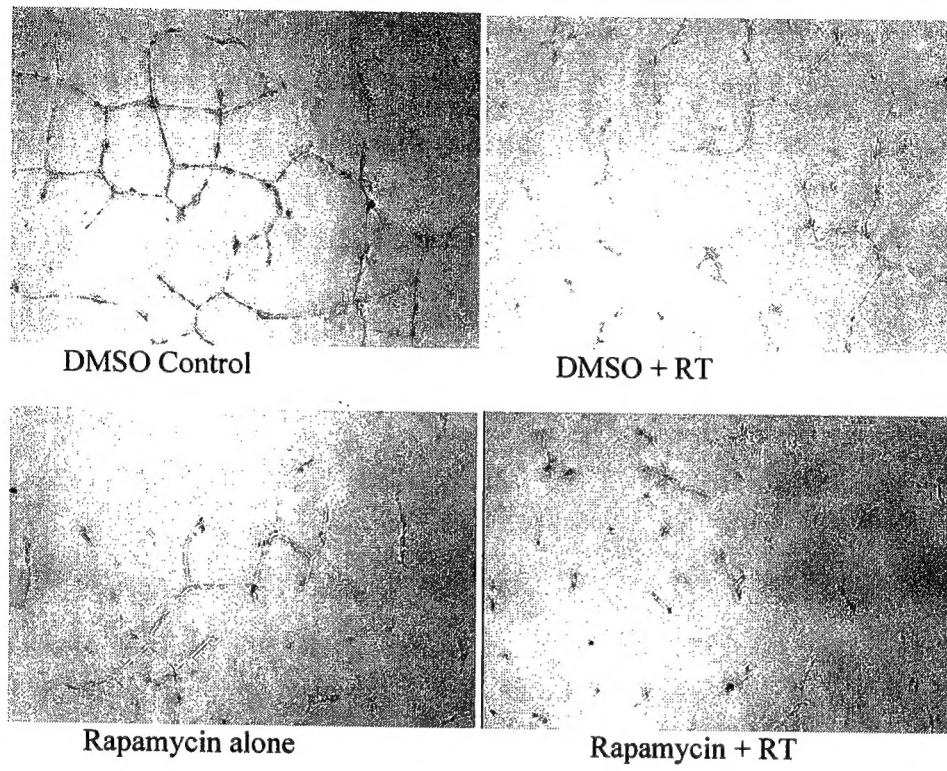




**Figure 2.**



**Figure 3.**



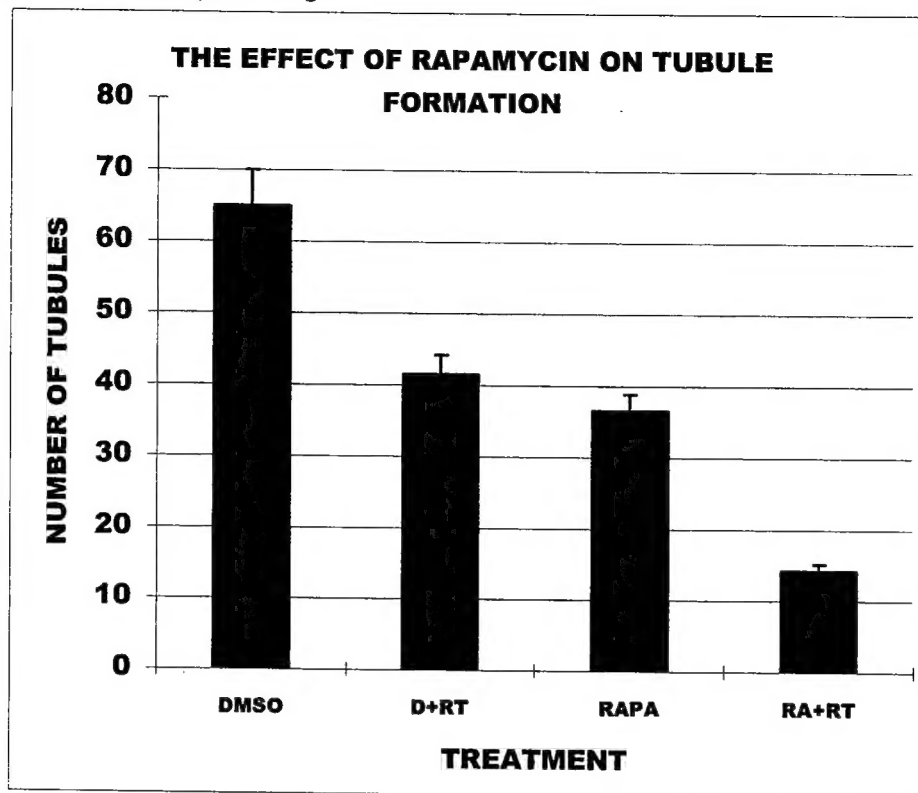
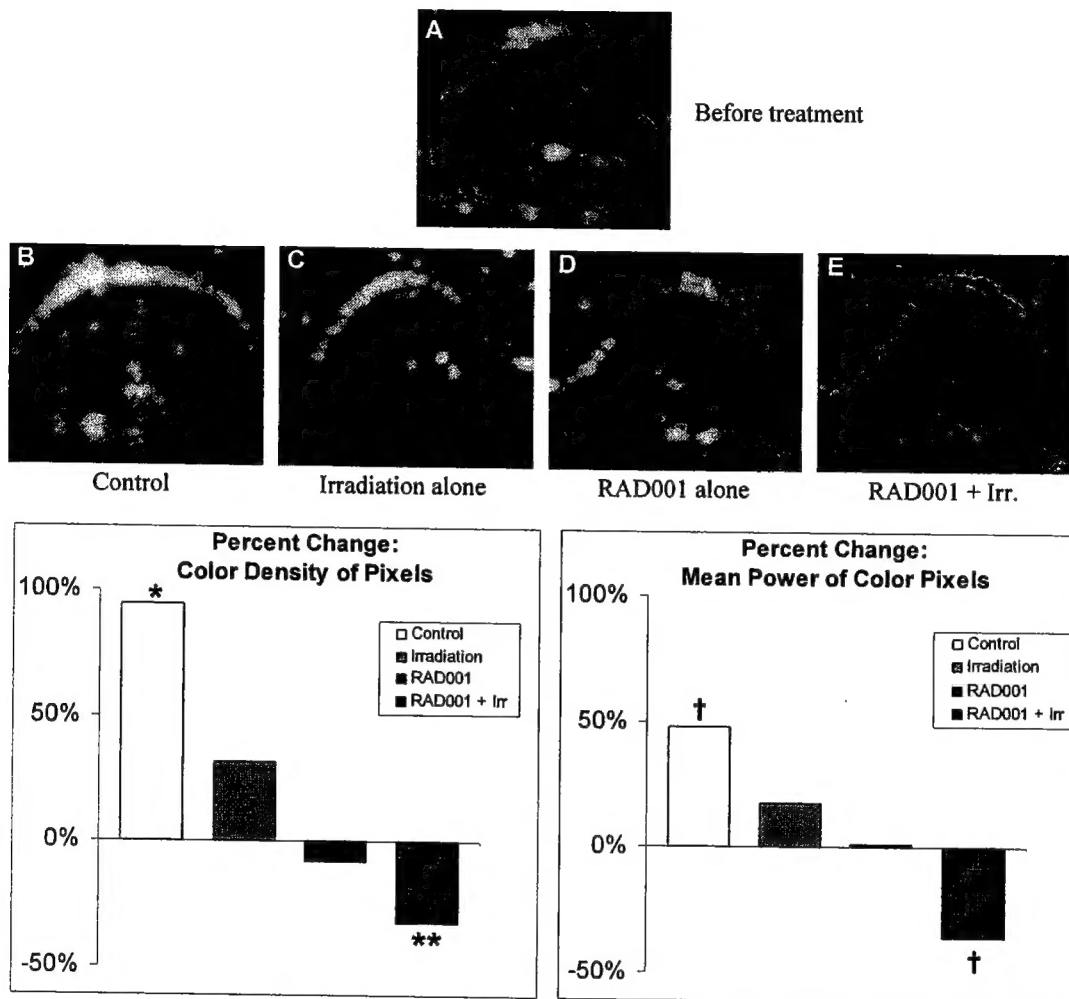


Figure 4.



**Figure 5.**

